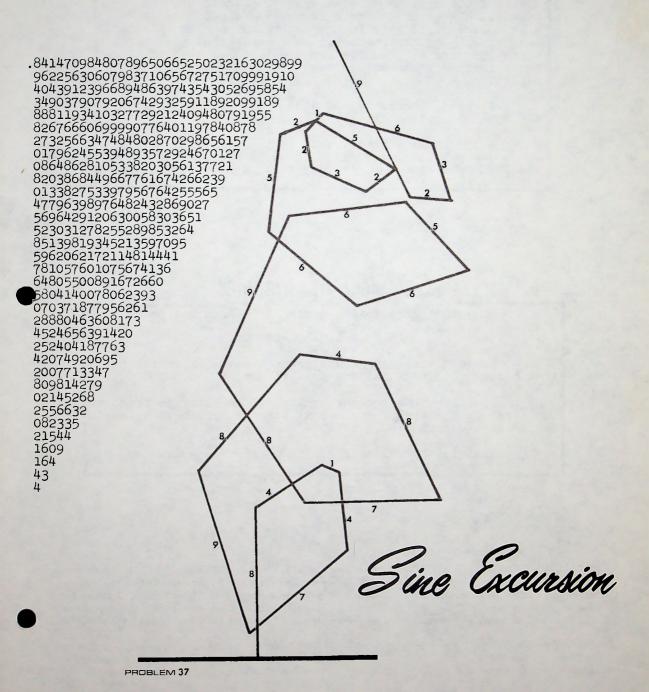
Popular Computing



SINE EXCURSION

A trip is begun at the origin, heading in the direction of the y-axis. Each leg of the trip has a length given by a digit of sine 1. 600 digits of this constant are shown on the cover. The angle between successive legs of the trip is one radian, taken clockwise. The digit zero in the decimal expansion of sine 1 indicates a leg of length zero and consequently a turn of two radians. A double zero indicates a turn of three radians; this occurs four times in the first 600 digits.

Problem: Where is the end of the 600th leg of the Sine Excursion?

Note: This is the fourth in the series of trips, for which previous entries were the Pi Dragon (PC6), the Road to e (PC8) and the Web of Fibonacci (PC10).

Sequence of Triangles

An equilateral triangle with unit area has an altitude, A_1 , of $\sqrt[4]{3} = 1.3160740129...$

An equilateral triangle whose area is expressed by that number (1.316074...) has an altitude, A₂, 1.5098036...

Continue this process; that is, the altitude found at one stage is the area for the next stage. The next triangle has an altitude, A3, of 1.6171144...

What is the value of A100?

PROBLEM 38

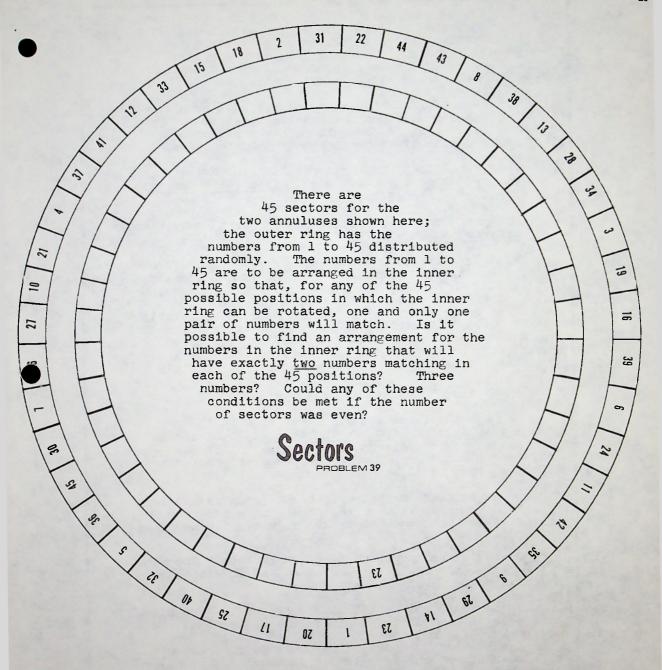
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Pasta

The use of computers to play real games goes back now about 20 years. It is part of the Artificial Intelligence area, which is the attempt to simulate human decision-making (or creativity) by a computer program. Only in the areas of game playing and music composition has there been significant progress in AI.

The game of Kalah has been successfully programmed (that is, the computer program, playing against a human, usually wins). Fair success in checkers has been attained, and much attention has been paid to chess.

Zobrist, Albert, and Frederic Carlson, Jr., "An Advice-Taking Chess Computer," <u>Scientific American</u>, June, 1973, pp 93-105.

Mittman, Benjamin, "Can a Computer Beat Bobby Fischer?," Datamation, June, 1973, pp 84-87.

What does the term "real game" mean? It refers, first, to open-board games that have no random element; that is, all information is available to all players, and no luck is involved. The game must also be of sufficient complexity that it cannot be analyzed simply by exhaustion. Thus, Tic-Tac-Toe is not a real game in this sense, since every possible move can be readily enumerated (and stored in a computer). Chess is a real game; the standard estimate of the number of possible distinct chess games is 10^{120} . Games like Oware, Go, Fives (Go-Moku), and Pasta are real games.

The game of Pasta was first reported in the March 15, 1956 issue of Computing News. Attention is being called to it again on the grounds that it may constitute a supreme challenge for computer programmers. While the game itself is not as complex as chess, a program to implement a winning strategy may be much more complex. In fact, although Pasta has been around for 17 years, the only evidence that there is a strategy in playing it is that some people win consistently more than others.

Pasta is the invention of Alvin Paster. The name of the game comes by analogy to Laska, an invention of the chess master, Lasker.

The initial setup is that of checkers. The big difference in play is in jumping: the jumper adds the top checker of the jumpee to the bottom of his piece. A red piece, then, consists of a stack of checkers with any number of red checkers atop any number of (or no) black checkers. It is a red pawn, in the sense of checkers, if it consists of only one red checker atop any number of black checkers (which number includes zero). It is a red king, in the sense of checkers, if it consists of two or more red checkers atop any number of black

checkers (again, including zero black checkers). The object of the game is to place one of your pieces in the opponent's back row.

The moves are as in checkers: pawns can move only forward, kings can move in both directions, and jumps are compulsory. The board is oriented as in checkers (double corner on the right) and the usual rules of courtesy apply (e.g., when you move a piece, it stays moved). Black and red alternate in making the opening move; it is expedient in Pasta for a player to retain the same color through all games.

No checkers leave the board. The devastating feature of the game is that the pieces change both rank and color during play. There is one more rather important rule: you may not move into the opponent's back row (thus ending the game) if there is any jump available to you. Further, if a king jumps into the last row and it is possible for him to continue the jump out of the last row, he must do so, and the move does not constitute a win. This gives a useful last-ditch strategy.

Suppose your king jumps your opponent's king. You may not, as part of the same move, jump right back over his king and whittle it down to your own color (or to nothing at all). You may, however, as a result of a multiple jump, jump the same piece more than once. A trivial computation from the rules indicates that a stack can have only one red-black interface.

A king with three or more of its own color (on top, of course) is called a chiang. Such a piece is very powerful. It can move forward, displacing the opponent's men by forcing them to jump him at small expense to his own power. Something about the method of formation of chiangs seems to "bottle them up" in one's own back ranks; therefore, one may speak of unleashing the chiang.

A powerful set of last-ditch defensive plays revolve about forcing jumps or multiple jumps on the opponent, which effectively eliminate his threat by transporting the threatening piece away from one's own back rank.

The game commonly opens with an exchange of jumps designed to produce kings. This has been variously characterized as "the dance of the wild loons," "the gooney-bird dance," and "yo-yo-ing." These jumps may be delayed for some time, but it seems inevitable that when one player starts it, the other must play along.

Games can be terrifically fast at times, taking as little as one minute, and as few as seven full moves. Innocuous looking jumps can create more jumps to form a totally unexpected chain reaction, running in some cases to as many as twenty forced moves. It is thus extremely difficult to see more than a few moves ahead.

The double corner seems to be the soft underbelly, and should be guarded carefully. Ability at checkers may be a drawback. In particular, many apparent exchanges don't "bounce" as in checkers, and long experience with checkers may be a boobytrap. Incidentally, it does not seem possible to have a draw in Pasta.

It is highly advisable to use a board with squares which are not the same color as the checkers. The Woolworth standard (red and black checkers; red and black board) creates confusion.

Following is a game which is quite common and which is a sort of "fool's mate." The board is numbered as in checkers, with red on squares 1-12:

	32		31	1	30		29
28		27		26		25	
	24		23		22	村。	21
20		19		18		17	
	16		15		14		13
12		11		10		9	
	8		7		6		5
4	,	3		2		1	

Red opens 11-16. Then black 24-20; red 10-15; black 20-11; red 7-16; black 23-19. It is now safe for red to move 16-23, giving black a king. Since it seems foolhardy to give black a king, red tries 15-24 instead. This seems innocuous, but the following sequence yields a sudden loss for red: B 28-19; R 16-23; B 24-15; R 11-18; B 26-10; R 6-15; B 23-7; R 2-11; B 7-2. Most of these moves are forced.

An even shorter game is the following: B 24-19; R 11-16; B 27-24; R 16-20; B 22-18; R 20-17; B 31-24; R 10-15; B 18-11; R 8-15; B 19-10; R 11-18; B 23-14; R 6-31.

Both of these common games illustrate another unique feature of Pasta; namely, that it is frequently more proper to speak of one player losing than of the other player winning. The game offers one the opportunity, as in no other game, of carefully engineering your own defeat.

ROBERT TEAGUE

This month's problem set is not as much a test of the programmer as it is of the Fortran compiler. In each of the three programs shown here, some unusual operations will take place that perhaps violate the spirit of the ANSI standard, but not the letter. The programs each present three problems for the programmer to answer for himself and then check his answers on the Fortran compiler. I would appreciate as many outputs as possible from different compilers as a test of how they individually interpret the standard; I will summarize the results in a future issue. Send the outputs to Speaking of Languages... c/o POPULAR COMPUTING.

The three questions concerning the programs are:

- (1) Will it compile?
- (2) Will it execute?
- (3) What output will be produced?

```
I.
   DIMENSION L(3)
   EQUIVALENCE (J,L(2))
   L(2) = 10
   DØ 10 J = 1.3
   K = J
10 CØNTINUE
                          II.
   WRITE (6,20) L(2)
20 FØRMAT (17)
                             DIMENSION L(3)
   STØP
                             EQUIVALENCE (J,L(2))
   END
                             L(1) = 46

L(2) = 47
                             L(3) = 48
                             DØ 10 J = 1,3
                             I = J
                             L(I) = J/2 + 4
                          10 CØNTINUE
                                                     III.
                             WRITE (6,20) L(2)
                          20 FØRMAT (17)
                                                        DIMENSION L(3)
                             STØP
                                                        EQUIVALENCE (J,L(2))
                             END
                                                        L(1) = 5
                                                        L(2) = 9
                                                        L(3) = 3
                                                        DØ 10 J = 1,3
                                                        L(J) = J*4 + J/2
                                                    10 CØNTINUE
                                                        WRITE (6,20) L
                                                    20 FØRMAT (3(2X,I7))
                                                        STØP
                                                        END
```

Note: Make appropriate changes to the WRITE statements in the programs if the printer is not assigned to unit 6 on your system. Archimedes and the Value of Pi

by R. W. Hamming Bell Laboratories, Murray Hill, New Jersey

In order to calculate the value of pi, Archimedes (287-212 BC) hit upon inscribing and circumscribing regular polygons in and around a circle. He argued that as the number of sides of the regular polygons was increased, the corresponding perimeters would approach each other and straddle the length of the circle. It would, perhaps, have been better to have used the areas rather than the lengths, but we will follow the general plan of Archimedes.

We propose, at each stage, to double the number of sides of the polygons. For this we need the corresponding formulas, using a circle of unit radius. From the Pythagorean Theorem we have, using \mathbf{S}_n as the length of a side of an n-sided inscribed polygon,

$$\frac{\overline{OA}^2 + (s_n/2)^2}{\overline{AB}^2 + (s_n/2)^2} = 1$$

 $\frac{\overline{AB}^2 + (s_n/2)^2}{\overline{OA} + \overline{AB}} = 1$

Eliminate AB:

$$\overline{OA}^2 = 1 - (s_n/2)^2$$

 $(1 - \overline{OA})^2 = s_{2n}^2 - (s_n/2)^2$

From the first of this pair:

$$\overline{OA} = (1/2)\sqrt{4 - S_n^2}$$

and, putting this in the second equation:

$$1 - \sqrt{4 - s_n^2} + 1 - (s_n/2)^2 = s_{2n}^2 - (s_n/2)^2$$

or:

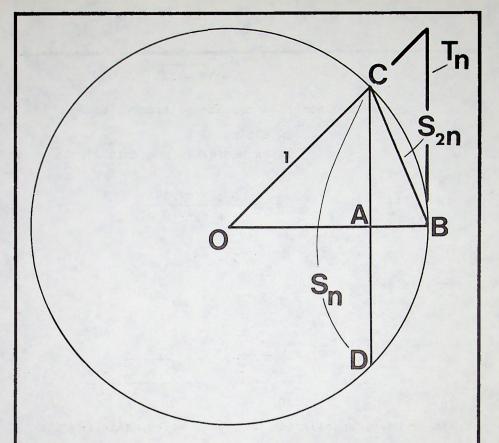
$$s_{2n} = \sqrt{2 - \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}}$$

But in this form as S_n approaches zero there is heavy cancellation, and hence roundoff errors, so we rewrite it:

$$s_{2n} = \sqrt{2 - \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}} \left[\frac{\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}}}{\sqrt{2 + \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}}} \right]$$

Finally:

$$s_{2n} = \frac{s_n}{2 + \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}}$$



The total perimeter is $2nS_{2n}$ and this approaches 2π , as is evident in the top half of the accompanying table. The calculations are most convenient when we begin with an inscribed hexagon.

The formula

$$s_{2n}^2 = 2 - \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}$$

is a simple trigonometric identity in disguise.

$$\cos^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1 - \cos \theta}{2}$$

$$1 - \sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta}}{2}$$

$$\sin^2 \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{1 + \sqrt{1 - \sin^2 \theta}}{2}$$

But
$$S_n = 2 \sin \theta$$

 $S_{2n} = 2 \sin(\theta/2)$

$$\frac{s_{2n}^2}{4} = \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 - (s_n/2)^2}}{2}$$

and hence

$$s_{2n}^2 = 2 - \sqrt{4 - s_n^2}$$

For the circumscribed regular polygon we have

$$T_n = \tan \theta$$

 $T_{2n} = \tan(\theta/2)$ in a unit circle.

Using the fact that

$$\tan \theta = \frac{2 \tan(\theta/2)}{1 - \tan^2(\theta/2)}$$

$$T_n = \frac{2T_{2n}}{1 - T_{2n}^2}$$

from this we get

$$(T_n)T_{2n}^2 + 2T_{2n} - T_n = 0$$

and, solving for T2n,

$$T_{2n} = \frac{-1 \pm \sqrt{1 + T_n^2}}{T_n} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + T_n^2} - 1}{T_n}$$

Again we have cancellation problems, so we again rewrite it in the form

$$T_{2n} = \frac{\sqrt{1 + T_n^2} - 1}{T_n} \left[\frac{\sqrt{1 + T_n^2} + 1}{\sqrt{1 + T_n^2} + 1} \right] = \frac{T_n}{1 + \sqrt{1 + T_n^2}}$$

and again the total perimeter is $2nT_{2n}$ which approaches 2π as the number of sides is increased. For the case of circumscribed polygons, it is convenient to begin with a circumscribed square.

The accompanying table shows the calculations (carried out in double precision floating arithmetic in Fortran) extended through 19 doublings. Archimedes was able to show (doubling four times) that

$$3 1/7 > \pi > 3 10/71$$

that is, that pi lies between 3.1429 and 3.1408.

Exercise: Develop corresponding formulas for bracketing pi in terms of the areas of inscribed and circumscribed polygons.

N	S	P	
6 12 24 48 96 192 384 768 1536 3072 6144 12288 24576 49152 98304 196608 393216 786432 1572864 3145728	1.000000000000000000000000000000000000	6.0000000000000000006.2116570824292 6.2652572265361 6.2787004060810 6.2820639017736 6.2829049444990 6.2831152157159 6.2831809263444 6.2831842119340 6.2831850333605 6.2831852387171 6.2831852387171 6.2831853028620 6.2831853060052 6.2831853070529 6.2831853070529 6.2831853071693 6.2831853071693	Inscribed
4 8 16 32 64 128 256 512 1024 2048 4096 8192 16384 32768 65536 131072 262144 524288 1048576 2097152	2.000000000000000000000000000000000000	8.0000000000000000006.62741699791516.36519575607966.30344981478996.28823677042966.283444725985176.28350073832556.28318653919266.28318530637386.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.28318530716936.2831853071693	Circumscribed

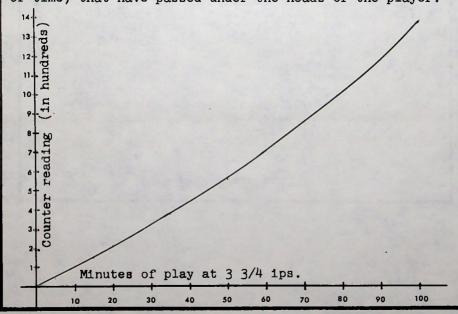
Tape Player Counters

Audio tape recorders usually have a counter (analog in its units position and digital in the higher order positions). It is difficult to say what these counters count. They are usually driven from the shaft of the supply reel, and they thus register some function of the number of turns of the supply reel. Their reading has no direct bearing on the amount of tape that passes the heads of the machine. When a tape is cued on one machine, the cue sheet is of little use on another machine—even one of the same brand. The graph shows the relation between a counter reading and the amount of tape passed under the head on a Sony 540.

The data for the curve shown is as follows:

Time	Counter	Time	Counter
5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45	51 103 157 211 267 324 383 443 505 569	55 60 65 70 75 80 85 90 95	635 704 775 849 926 1007 1092 1182 1278 1382

Similar data can be readily obtained for other machines, and other conditions of play. The problem that is involved is not strictly a computer problem, but since it may require curve fitting, it is a suitable problem for computists. So the Problem is: devise a formula by which tape player counter readings can be transformed into useful information; namely, the number of feet (or seconds of time) that have passed under the heads of the player.



Given a three-dimensional array, $10 \times 10 \times 10$. The numbers from 1 to 1000 are to be put in this array in ascending order according to the distance of a cell from the origin. The shortest such distance is for the cell I=1, J=1, K=1, for which the squared distance from the origin is given by

$$D^2 = I^2 + J^2 + K^2 = 3$$

and the greatest squared distance is for I = 10, J = 10, K = 10, which gives 300.

The six cells:

I	J	K
T 334455	453534	K 5 4 5 3 4 3

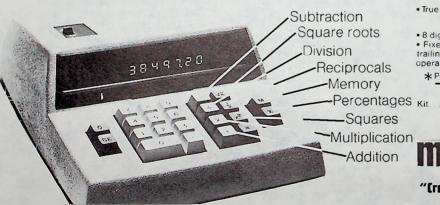
Cubical Array

all have the same distance from the origin (taken as 0, 0, 0) and for such cases the ordering is to be taken as in the above list, with the values of I, J, and K taken as 3-digit numbers in ascending order.

Flowchart the logic for assigning the numbers from 1 to 1000 to the 1000 cells of the array. Write a Fortran program for the task.

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Millions and Billions

Since computer people toss around the terms "million" and "billion" quite casually, it would help to be able to make these terms vivid.

Million is fairly easy. A million card chips occupy almost exactly three quarts. A million standard U.S. postage stamps would fill slightly over two cubic feet. A million seconds is 277.78 hours--about twice the Biblical time for the creation. A million IBM cards form a stack 556 feet high. A million days ago was 765 B.C. Your heart beats a million times every ten days, and a million breaths carries you through two months.

The concept of a billion is harder to visualize. In a billionth of a second, light travels 11.8 inches. A billion grains of common table salt weigh 300 pounds—about seven cubic feet. A backyard swimming pool contains nearly a billion drops. A billion seconds is 31.6888 years. Forty one average homes contain a billion cubic inches. If you watched "Sound of Music" 92,500 times, a billion feet of film would have gone through the projectors, and you would have spent 21 years of continuous viewing. However, a billion frames of film would have gone by in the first 482 days of viewing.

A round trip from Los Angeles to New York is a billion centimeters long. A quarter of a million copies of this issue of POPULAR COMPUTING would fill a billion cubic inches. A billion No. 18 paper clips weigh 911 tons. A billion of the staples that hold each copy of POPULAR COMPUTING together would weigh 39 tons, or as much weight as 42 Volkswagens. On the other hand, a billion Volkswagens would make (uncrushed) two million monuments of the volume of the pyramid of Khufu at Gizeh. And a billion copper pennies would weigh as much as 1100 Cadillacs.

A billion is close to the 30th power of 2, or the 19th power of 3. A billion standard pencils laid end to end would go around the earth nearly 5 times, and weigh 6168 tons. A billion 5-grain aspirin tablets weigh 417 tons and would fill your swimming pool eleven times. Those 13 billion hamburgers that McDonald's has sold would cover over 65 square miles. 5 1/2 sets of the Encyclopedia Brittanica contain a billion characters of printing, including commas. A billion grains of rice weigh over 50,000 pounds and fill 500 cubic feet--that is, a cube 7.96 feet on a side.

The majority of the computers in this country are <u>each</u> executing over a billion instructions every hour.

The Attached Tape

Attached to each copy of the initial press run of this issue of POPULAR COMPUTING is a tape recording containing a message of special interest to students.

The recording is on 4-track tape, recorded at

3 3/4 inches per second in stereo.

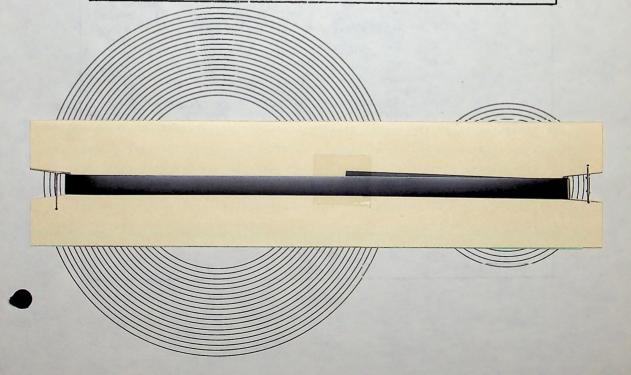
The tape is wound on its bobbin with the head end out and with the recording surface in. The Scotch tape used to secure it to the cardboard should be cut off. There is a foot or so of blank tape at each end of the recording, but it will probably be necessary to attach some leader to both ends of the tape.

This is probably the first time that an audio

message has been bound into a magazine.

The problems referred to on the tape are these:

```
8 (PC4-13) for the blanks from 38 up.
22 (PC8-14) for the DIS number PR6.
29 (PC9-16) for any three additional entries to the tables.
31 (PC10-9) for No. 4 of the four problems.
14
   (PC6-10)
15
16
   (PC7-1)
(PC7-10
                             (PC9-5)
                         26
                             (PC9-10)
                                                       (PC10-12)
19
   (PC8-1)
                             (PC9-14)
                                                       (PC10-12
                             (PC10-1)
21
   (PC8-13)
                          30
                                                        PC11-1)
24
   (PC9-1)
                             (PC10-11)
                                                       (PC11-11)
```



N-Series 1.07918124604762482772250569270410136273650862711 49129474507205625594455313325101420168228598840 Log 12 2.48490664978800031022970947983887884079849082654 Ln 12 32599599760543526242815371579983980853424088065 69463871972991107099237209739044697446780935118 3.46410161513775458705489268301174473388561050762 07612561116139589038660338176000741622923735144 V12 97151351252282830813406059939890189997904957623 V12 2.28942848510666373561608442387935401783181384157 58621441981043481313485980484283008752163220618 34091097411518808629910364030722450577233158752 **∜**12 1.64375182951722576230849793623097951738349258994 54752004110297675321076924920997929976201984189 **1**12 1.42616163522737884048412068545144256672970398764 51671743105768367880736837025456095582951523499 10/12 1.28208885398681544044853076291559948258208854894 70024248225064620936984144166070767860647648161 100j V12 1.02516037780073587436669640068930683721542440671 17766369362591228717089052166108262799217452509 e12 162754.791419003920808005204898486783170209284478 720770443556248138596770835543738729288241 909431684317816136420649516201423295328144 ₇12 924269.181523374186222579170358475607172922268940 049306205759784137974139199236871159289927 187480032324169939326240538299381718549993 tan-1 12 1.48765509490645538932065337698897014456745335905 95334842528448297579107968063658963722805747820 12100 8281797452201455025840842359573684980161228118538 9443546420186410325491933012122303777028329685801 9385573376

1